

1 **Assessing the function of pounding tools in the Early Stone Age: A microscopic**
2 **approach to the analysis of percussive artefacts from Beds I and II, Olduvai Gorge**
3 **(Tanzania)**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 This study explores the function of quartzite pounding tools from Olduvai Gorge (Tanzania)
12 using microscopic and use wear spatial distribution analysis. A selection of pounding tools
13 from several Bed I and II assemblages excavated by Mary Leakey (1971) were studied under
14 low magnification (<100x), and the microscopic traces developed on their surfaces are
15 described. Experimental data and results obtained from analysis of the archaeological
16 material are compared in order to assess activities in which pounding tools could have been
17 involved. Results show that experimental anvils used for meat processing, nut cracking
18 and/or bone breaking have similar wear patterns as those observed on archaeological
19 percussive artefacts. This is the first time that a microscopic analysis is applied to Early Stone
20 Age pounding artefacts from Olduvai Beds I and II, and this paper highlights the importance
21 that percussive activities played during the Early Pleistocene, suggesting a wider range of
22 activities in addition to knapping and butchering.

23

24 **Keywords**

25 Olduvai Gorge; battering activities; pounding tools; use wear analysis; Early Stone Age

26 **1. Introduction**

27 The use of pounding tools has been widely documented in the ethnographic record
28 (i.e. Boshier, 1965; Maguire, 1965; Gould et al., 1971; Lee and DeVore, 1976; Yellen, 1977;
29 Salazar et al., 2012) as well as in late Prehistory periods (i.e. Dodd, 1979; Adams, 1988; de
30 Beaune, 1993; Adams et al., 2009; Dubreuil et al., 2015). Ethological research has shown that
31 many non-human primate species habitually use stone tools for a variety of food-processing
32 activities. For example, West African chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) (i.e. Sugiyama and
33 Koman, 1979; Sugiyama, 1997; Carvalho et al., 2007; 2008; Matsuzawa et al., 1999;
34 Matsuzawa, 2011; Struhsaker and Hunkeler, 1971; Boesch and Boesch, 1983; Boesch-
35 Achermann and Boesch, 1993) and Brazilian capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus libidinosus*) (i.e.
36 Visalberghi et al., 2009; Fragaszy et al., 2004; Ferreira et al., 2010) use hammerstones and
37 anvils to crack nuts, and Thai long-tailed macaques (*Macaca fascicularis*) (Malaivijitnond et
38 al., 2007; Gumert et al., 2009; Gumert and Malaivijitnond, 2013; Haslam et al., 2013) use
39 different types of hammers to process gastropods and crabs.

40 Recent years have witnessed an advancement in the study of percussive tools,
41 especially those of the Early Stone Age (ESA). Interest increased in particular when
42 researchers began to consider the mechanics of pounding as a key factor and potential
43 previous stage leading to the emergence of knapping (De Beaune, 2000; 2004), and there has
44 also growing interest in the analysis of wear patterns present on the pounding tools
45 themselves (i.e. de la Torre et al., 2013; Caruana et al., 2014). Pounding tools have been
46 recovered from Early Stone Age sites such as Koobi Fora (Isaac, 1997; Caruana et al., 2014),
47 Melka Kunturé (Piperno et al., 2004; Chavaillon, 2004; Gallotti, 2013), Lokalalei 2C
48 (Delagnes and Roche, 2005), Gesher Benot Ya'aqov (Goren-Inbar et al., 2002; 2014; 2015;
49 Alperson-Afil and Goren-Inbar, 2016) and Olduvai Gorge (Leakey, 1971).

50 The Early Stone Age record in Olduvai Gorge, ranging from >1.8 to c. 0.5 my, is one
51 of the best known in Africa. Lithic assemblages from different sites excavated by Mary
52 Leakey in Beds I and II (Leakey, 1971) have been analysed by a number of researchers (e.g.
53 Potts, 1982; Kimura, 1999; 2002; Ludwig, 1999; de la Torre and Mora, 2005), providing a
54 substantial body of knowledge about hominin knapping skills and strategies. Some of this
55 research focused on percussive tools and their role in assemblages and showed that ESA
56 hominin activities focused not only on flake production, but also included the use of
57 unshaped rocks probably involved in different pounding activities (e.g. Mora and de la Torre,
58 2005).

59 Further evidence for percussive activities in the ESA is preserved in fossil
60 assemblages, the analysis of which showed bones that had been intentionally fractured by
61 placing them on an anvil and hitting them with a hammerstone (Blumenschine and Selvaggio,
62 1988; Blumenschine, 1995). Such evidence supports the hypothesis that some percussive
63 tools found at Olduvai could have been used to break bones in order to extract marrow (Mora
64 and de la Torre, 2005). To test this hypothesis, and check whether other materials might have
65 been processed with anvils and other battered stone tools, recent experimental programmes
66 have developed a comparative framework to interpret archaeological material (de la Torre et
67 al., 2013; Sánchez Yustos et al., 2015). Experimental results show that at macro- and
68 microscopic levels different pounding tasks such as bipolar knapping, bone breaking, meat
69 tenderizing, plant processing and nut cracking leave distinctive patterns of percussive marks
70 on passive quartzite anvils (de la Torre et al., 2013), while other works have discussed the
71 functionality of spheroids and subspheroids (Sánchez Yustos et al., 2015)

72 Having highlighted the importance of percussive tool use in the ESA record from
73 Olduvai Gorge (Mora and de la Torre, 2005), and developed an experimental framework (de
74 la Torre et al, 2013), the next step is to apply such analytical protocols to archaeological

75 assemblages, and compare results with the experimental outcomes. This paper, which
76 includes the first microscopic and use wear spatial distribution studies of archaeological
77 pounded pieces from some of the classic assemblages excavated by Mary Leakey (1971) in
78 Olduvai Beds I and II, contributes to the discussion of battered artefacts in the Early Stone
79 Age. Furthermore, it demonstrates the relevance of percussive activities in human evolution
80 through the application of new analytical methods to the study of Palaeolithic pounded tools.

81

82 **2. Methods and materials**

83 **2.1 Methods**

84 Use wear analysis is recognised as a valuable tool that can be employed to assess the
85 use and function of stone tools. Despite development of the discipline since the 60s, it has
86 rarely been applied to the African ESA. Use-wear studies have been conducted on African
87 Lower Pleistocene assemblages from Koobi Fora (Keeley and Toth, 1981), Kanjera
88 (Lemorini et al., 2014), Ain Hanech (Sahnouni and Heinzelin, 1998; Vergés, 2003; Sahnouni
89 et al., 2013), and Olduvai (Sussman, 1987), but all have focused on analysis of flakes using
90 both high and low magnification approaches.

91 In this paper, we use a multi-scale approach (Grace, 1990) to analyse pounding tools
92 from Olduvai Gorge that includes an analysis of morphological traces of use-wear using low
93 power microscopy. As shown elsewhere (de la Torre et al., 2013), a low magnification
94 approach (<100x) offers good results when analysing large percussive tools. In investigating
95 the presence of percussive damage similar to those found on the experimental assemblage (de
96 la Torre et al., 2013), this study analyses not only macroscopically visible damage patterns,
97 but also areas where no damage was observable.

98 The analysis of artefacts was conducted at the National Museum of Tanzania (Dar es
99 Salaam), using a fibre optic illumination trinocular microscope GX-XTL with a

100 magnification range between 0.7x and 4.5x and a 10x eyepiece, allowing a final
101 magnification of 45x. All photographs were taken with a Nikon D90 DLSR camera attached
102 to the microscope and Nikon Camera Control Pro software.

103 In addition, and following the protocols established elsewhere (de la Torre et al.,
104 2013; Benito-Calvo et al., 2015), a use wear spatial distribution analysis has been conducted
105 using GIS to assess and quantify the degree of working surface modification in the pounded
106 artefacts.

107 **2.2 General characteristics of the lithic assemblage**

108 Tools were selected from those assemblages excavated by Mary Leakey (1971) in
109 Olduvai Beds I and II where a considerable number of percussive tools had previously been
110 documented (Mora and de la Torre, 2005). On the basis of context and conditions of
111 conservation/preservation, seven pounding tools from five different sites (BK, FC West, TK,
112 SHK and FLK North Level 6) were selected for microscopic analysis (Figure 1). These sites
113 span Bed I (FLK North Level 6), through Middle Bed II (FC West and SHK) to Upper Bed II
114 (TK and BK) (Leakey, 1971; Hay, 1976).

115

116 *Insert Figure 1.*

117

118 The artefacts analysed here are on tabular quartzite blocks from Naibor Soit, a
119 Precambrian inselberg located about 3.5 km from the confluence of the Main and Side Gorge,
120 and within a 5 km radius of the main archaeological sites (Hay, 1976). Morphologically, the
121 Naibor Soit quartzite is a coarse-grained crystalline rock, composed primarily of quartz and
122 mica (Hay, 1976). In the source area, quartzite is available in different forms, from small, flat
123 and portable blocks scattered across the Naibor Soit hills, to large fixed boulders (Jones,
124 1994).

125 **3. Results**

126 **3.1 Techno-typological analysis**

127 From a general perspective, and despite the variety of sites from which the tools were
128 selected, the pounding tools analysed here are all morphologically similar, and conform to
129 Leakey's (1971) original description of anvils. They have similar morphological
130 characteristics (i.e. cuboid shapes), with mean dimensions of 123.6 x 95.9 x 72.4 mm and a
131 mean weight of 1332.4 gr (see details in Table 1).

132

133 *Insert Table 1.*

134

135 The pounding tools showed macroscopic impact marks scattered along one or two
136 horizontal planes on which percussive activity occurred. Occasionally, small battering areas
137 were identified on contact zones between the horizontal and transversal planes (Figure 2).
138 One anvil (FLK N 1/6 10290) showed a large battered area with an elongated morphology on
139 one lateral plane. This area measures 3.13 cm², and which crystals appear heavily crushed,
140 suggesting additional use as an active element; this is due to the morphological characteristics
141 of the pounding marks and because they are located in a zone on the blank that would not
142 have the stability required for being used as passive element. In addition, two artefacts
143 originally classified by Leakey (1971) as anvils (TK II 2060 and SHK 2152), have a series of
144 non-invasive, superimposed, contiguous stepped scars, wide and short in morphology,
145 removed from the main horizontal plane at a 90° angle, and associated with impact points or
146 superficial battered areas that tend to be distributed along the edge. These traces resemble
147 fracture patterns described by Alimen (1963) as characteristic of anvils.

148 In summary, all percussive traces on the tools analysed are concentrated on peripheral
149 areas, close to the edges or contact areas between two planes. Macroscopically, the central

150 zones of blanks show no large areas with traces of use, and only a few isolated impact points.
151 Therefore, their general morphological characteristics and percussive traces, along with the
152 absence of large battered areas on surfaces, match with use-wear patterns documented on
153 experimental anvils (see de la Torre et al., 2013), and thus suggest their possible use as
154 passive elements.

155

156 *Insert Figure 2*

157

158 **3.2 Use wear analysis**

159 Table 2 summarizes the type of wear patterns identified on each tool analysed. All
160 artefacts bear impact marks scattered across the horizontal plane as well as concentrated on
161 small battering areas. These impact marks are circular, with fractured crystals at their central
162 point (Figure 3 A-2, Figure 4 B-1). Small areas were identified that have repetitive impacts
163 associated with the development of crushing (Figure 3 A-1 and B-1). In these areas, where
164 the surface tends to have a frosted appearance (Adams, 2002; Adams et al., 2009) (Figure 4
165 A-2 and 3), repetitive impacts caused crushing and fracturing of crystals and removed small
166 fragments producing step fractures (Figure 3 B-2), whose negatives occasionally show
167 characteristics of conchoidal fracture produced by direct impact.

168 Moreover, most percussive tools analysed (n=4) have microfractures which are
169 angular in shape ('V' fractures) and located mainly on the edges of the tool (Figure 3 B-3).
170 Such fractures do not appear along the entire perimeter of the tool, but are associated
171 normally with small battered areas, while the remaining edge is unmodified.

172

173 *Insert Table 2*

174 The percussive marks described above (impacts, crushing, angular microfractures and
175 step fractures) are due to the tribological mechanisms of fatigue wear (Adams et al., 2009)
176 produced by a thrusting percussion motion. Keeping in mind that all tools analysed are
177 interpreted as having been used as passive elements (based on characteristics of the marks
178 with impact points, areas of crystal crushing and edge fractures), the wear formation could be
179 related to sporadic contact with the active element during use.

180

181 *Insert Figure 3*

182

183 *Insert Figure 4*

184

185 Furthermore, on some tools (e.g. TKII-2060 and FLKNI-8282), we have identified
186 percussive marks on two opposed horizontal planes. Previous macroscopic analysis of the
187 anvils suggests that damage on one face relates to marks produced by contact with the ground
188 (Mora and de la Torre, 2005). However, from a microscopic perspective, similarities in the
189 morphology of marks and their distribution, lead us to suggest that both horizontal planes
190 were used and, either the blanks were occasionally flipped during a single task, or both faces
191 were used on multiple occasions. Additionally, the size of blanks indicates that occasionally
192 they could have been used as active elements, such as in the case of tool FLK N 1/6 10290
193 (Figure 3 B), on which a battered area was identified at the intersection between the
194 transversal and sagittal planes.

195 Five of the seven pounding tools have abrasions (sensu Keeley, 1980; Sussman, 1988)
196 with the same morphology as those on experimental quartzite anvils described by de la Torre
197 et al. (2013). Sussman's (1988) study on use wear formation on quartz tools described a
198 similar type of wear and linked it with erosional processes caused by friction between two

199 objects resulting in a rough surface. Abrasions on the anvils analysed in the present study
200 have the same rough appearance as described by Sussman (1988), having a morphology that
201 tends to be elongated, with no preferential orientation, located close to the edges (no
202 pounding tools show abrasion on the central areas of their surfaces) (Figure 3 A-3), and a
203 loosely, scattered distribution. Sometimes these abrasions are associated with crushed and
204 microfractured areas (Figure 3 A-1) and, more specifically, they tend to be located on top of
205 areas with crushing, suggesting that formation of abrasion occurred after the other wear
206 traces.

207 **3.3 Use wear spatial distribution analysis**

208 All the analysed artefacts have a similar morphology and no significant size differences
209 (Kruskal-Wallis test $p > 0.05$ for length, width and weight), with similar areas (mean of 82.4
210 cm^2 and $\text{SD} = 20.0 \text{ cm}^2$) and perimeters (mean of 35.0 cm, $\text{SD} = 5.0 \text{ cm}$). Three of these
211 pounding tools show clear macroscopic damage, allowing a more detailed and quantitative
212 analysis of the spatial distribution of battering (see results in Table 3).

213 The BK-1 artefact possesses the greatest percentage of working surface damage
214 ($\text{PA} = 9.05\%$) and the largest individual use wear mark (LUW), which covers 3.48% of the
215 total surface. Artefacts FLKN-10290 and SHK-2152 show similar ratios, with $\text{PA} < 0.4\%$ and
216 $\text{LUW} < 0.20\%$ (Table 3); these differences are potentially associated to greater use in the case
217 of BK-1. Despite these variations, the three artefacts show a low density of wear traces
218 ($\text{D} < 0.15\%$). Morphologically, macroscopic wear traces in all tools are relatively small (mean
219 $\text{area} = 0.26 \text{ cm}^2$ and mean perimeter = 1.7 cm), with a more uniform shape in tools FLKN-
220 10290 ($\text{MNSH} = 1.19$), and SHK-2152 ($\text{MNSH} = 1.19$), and elongated in the case of tool BK-1
221 ($\text{MNSH} = 1.27$).

222 The GIS analysis shows that wear traces are dispersed in tools FLKN-10290 and
223 SHK-2152 (Ellipse elongation > 2.2), whilst are more concentrated in BK-1 (Ellipse

224 elongation=1.33). Despite these differences, use wear marks are located close to the edges in
225 all three tools. In this case, the DAC index (distance to the centre of tool) yields high values
226 (mean DAC>3 cm in all cases), while the DAE index (distance to the edge of the tool) shows
227 a mean value of <1.3 cm (Table 3 and Figure 5).

228

229 *Insert Table 3*

230

231 *Insert Figure 5*

232

233 **4. Discussion: assessing the function of percussive elements through comparison of** 234 **archaeological and experimental data**

235 In order to reconstruct activities that hominins might have undertaken during the ESA
236 in Olduvai Beds I and II, we can use direct comparison between the results presented here
237 and those obtained through our experimental programme (de la Torre et al., 2013).

238 The main characteristic shared by all pounding tools presented here is their low
239 degree of damage and the location of wear on peripheral areas of working surfaces.
240 Microscopic analysis indicates the presence of different traces such as crushing,
241 microfractures and abrasions. De la Torre et al. (2013) showed that activities such as bone
242 breaking and nut cracking occasionally produce microscopic abrasions on surfaces resulting
243 from the friction produced between the anvil and element processed.

244 In the archaeological pieces studied here, the location of abrasions near the edge and
245 occasionally associated with crushed areas suggests that, in fact, abrasion development is the
246 result of contact between the artefact and some kind of organic material, as will be discussed
247 below. Although the possibility that some abrasions were caused by post-depositional and
248 transport/manipulation processes cannot be ruled out entirely, impact marks, areas of

249 crushing and various fractures identified on pounding tool are certainly linked to use of
250 blanks, as they show no evidence that could suggest a more recent origin (e.g. changes in
251 patina).

252 The spatial distribution of marks in the pounding tools from Olduvai Gorge shows
253 similarities with experimental anvils used for nut-cracking (de la Torre et al., 2013: 326). In
254 both instances, PA and D indexes ($PA < 0.50\%$; $D < 0.15\%$) reflect the low density of
255 macroscopic wear traces on the working surfaces. When the comparison is extended to the
256 rest of the experimental results by de la Torre et al. (2013), further similarities are evident for
257 anvils used on bone breaking, meat and plant processing, all showing low density of marks.
258 In addition, experimental nut-cracking, meat tenderizing and bone breaking yield wear traces
259 located very close to the edges of the working surface (see details in de la Torre et al., 2013:
260 Table 6), with a standard deviation ellipse elongation showing similar values to those
261 identified in the archaeological assemblage (Figure 6). In summary, our analysis of the use
262 wear spatial distribution in pounding tools from Olduvai Gorge suggests similarities with
263 patterns observed in experimental anvils used to process bone, meat and nut materials, with
264 both assemblages sharing a low degree of modification in the working surfaces with
265 percussive traces, an off-centre and scattered distribution of marks.

266

267 *Figure 6*

268

269 In our nut cracking experiments (de la Torre et al., 2013), anvils tend to show impact
270 marks on peripheral areas, close to the edge, formed as a result of occasional contact between
271 hammerstone and anvil, but there were no traces of the formation of depressions. During
272 bone breaking and bone dismembering, sporadic edge fracture occurred, and some isolated
273 impact points produced by missed blows were identified. Activities such as meat tenderizing

274 and plant pounding tend to leave similar wear patterns on anvils, for example numerous
275 superficial battering areas and clusters of impact points scattered across the working surface;
276 one experimental anvil used to process meat shows a similar wear pattern to that seen on
277 archaeological anvils such as SHK-2152 (Figure 7A). Finally, anvils involved in bipolar
278 knapping activities bear the most intense wear marks consisting of large areas of battering
279 and crushing that tend to be clustered in a central location (de la Torre et al., 2013). These
280 results support those by Jones (1994) on the replication of pitted stones from Olduvai Beds
281 III and IV, which he suggested were used in bipolar knapping activities.

282 Our analysis and comparison of both the experimental and archaeological
283 assemblages from Beds I and II suggest that bipolar knapping was not the activity performed,
284 as none of the Olduvai anvils analysed show heavy damage on their surfaces. Meat
285 tenderizing and plant processing also tend to leave conspicuous percussive marks,
286 recognisable macroscopically by clusters of impacts scattered across the active surface and
287 very little edge damage is formed primarily by contact between the hammer and the anvil.

288 In contrast, there are two activities, namely nut cracking and bone breaking, in which
289 similar wear patterns were recognised on both archaeological and experimental passive
290 elements, with impact points, micro- and macro-fracturing of edges, and very few percussive
291 marks in central areas. During processing, nuts and bones are normally placed in central areas
292 of anvils, and therefore tend to absorb energy transmitted by the hammerstone. As a result,
293 there is a lack of wear traces on these central areas, as the hardness and density of quartzite
294 prevents formation of visible wear traces produced by pressure forces, while the weaker areas
295 of edges tend to fracture more easily. Consequently, as can be seen in Figure 7B, use wear
296 formation processes on the Olduvai pounding tools can be explained as the result of the
297 pressure of force applied when hitting a bone placed close to the edge of the artefact, as well
298 as by impacts from possibly too forceful and missed hits. If these pounding tools were used to

299 process nuts, the presence of wear on the edge can be related to contact between the two
300 percussive objects. In the case of nut-cracking activities, Gesher Benot Ya'aqov anvils show
301 depressions on their horizontal surfaces (Goren-Inbar et al., 2002), which are absent in the
302 pounding tools from Olduvai Gorge presented in this work. Olduvai Gorge quartzite is a non-
303 malleable rock in which the wear formation process involves microfracturing and crushing of
304 crystals. In contrast, the pitted stones from Gesher Benot Ya'aqov are made on basalt and
305 limestone where wear formation processes are different from quartzite, and so, the same
306 activity could produce disparate wear patterns.

307 Apart from nut cracking and bone breaking, another possibility (not experimentally
308 tested yet), is that damage could be produced by hitting the bone directly against the edge of
309 the artefact, using the same motion as in the so-called anvil-chipping technique (Shen and
310 Wang, 2000).

311

312 *Insert Figure 7*

313

314 Although the patterns and characteristics of wear traces observed in the Olduvai
315 pounding tools match with a passive function (following Chavaillon's 1979 terminology) as
316 identified on the experimental material (de la Torre et al., 2013), it must be acknowledged
317 that their identification as anvils requires further support. It has been long recognised (e.g. de
318 Beaune, 1993; de Beaune, 2000; Donnart et al., 2009) that pounding tools may have been
319 used in multiple activities, and their function as passive or active elements alternated. Most
320 certainly, this may have been the case for many of the Olduvai percussive tools, as discussed
321 above for artefact FLK N 1/6 10290. Nevertheless, we have adopted a conservative approach
322 when describing functionality of the artefacts analysed here, their morphology and size hints

323 to a passive role for most of them, and tends to support Leakey's (1971) original
324 classification of such pieces as anvils.

325

326 **5. Conclusions**

327 Before the current study, pounding tools from Olduvai Gorge had been described in
328 detail from a macroscopic perspective (Leakey, 1971; Jones, 1994; Mora and de la Torre,
329 2005), with some experimental programmes attempting to identify activities that could have
330 been undertaken with those tools (de la Torre et al, 2013; Sanchez Yustos et al, 2015). This
331 paper represents the first attempt to describe microscopic use wear in Early Stone Age
332 pounded tools and analysed the spatial distribution of the macroscopic traces, for which
333 artefacts from some emblematic assemblages excavated by Mary Leakey (1971) in Olduvai
334 Beds I and II were selected. This work has tested positively the potential of use-wear analysis
335 on quartzite tools, encouraging the application of microscopic and use wear spatial
336 distribution analysis to larger samples of Early Stone Age pounding artefacts.

337 Our results are thus a first step towards understanding formation processes of use
338 wear from various pounding activities where there is an absence of grinding and friction
339 movements and the primary motion is thrusting percussion. On the archaeological pounding
340 tools analysed from Olduvai Beds I and II, traces of impacts, microfractures, crushed areas
341 and abrasions were recognised, distributed primarily on peripheral areas of the working
342 surfaces. Comparison of the characteristics of these percussive artefacts with results from the
343 experimental programme indicate two activities (nut cracking and bone breaking) that show
344 similar wear patterns in both assemblages, results that are consistent with the quantitative
345 data obtained from GIS analysis. Thus, our microscopic analysis of a selection of pounding
346 tools from Olduvai Gorge indicates that they were indeed involved in percussive activities

347 different from stone tool knapping and butchering, thus contributing to extend the range of
348 early hominin activities at Olduvai Gorge.

349

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358

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